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AUTHOR Ockerman-Garza, Janet; And Others
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ABSTRACT

An analysis was made of the case histories of two Georgia State University (GSU) "cooperative models" for the delivery of career education and formal academic services to economically disadvantaged groups. One of the models served primarily black, primarily female Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) participants by providing a link between college and CETA to enroll the 18-19-year-old participants in an Associate of Science degree in Urban Life. The other model provided short-term training in job skills for CETA-eligible black female heads of household between the ages of 17 and 58. Information gained from these projects and from data collected through a recent GSU survey of 300 central business district employers in Atlanta was used to identify six problems relevant to the development of such cooperative models. These problems were (1) public sector versus private sector placement of students; (2) incompatible CETA systems and conflicting regulations; (3) lack of coordination among employment and training systems; (4) problems of the block grant approach in an urban environment; (5) undesirability of public employment service clients as perceived by central business district employers; and (6) lack of research concerning postsecondary involvement in cooperative models linking education and work. Specific recommendations to address these problems were made; among them is a cooperative model with an expanded role for the postsecondary education provider that includes a "mediating" or "brokering" role supplementing a formal training role. (Author/KC)

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DEVELOPING A COOPERATIVE POSTSECONDARY MODEL FOR INCREASING
EMPLOYABILITY OF ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED GROUPS

JANET OCKERMAN-GARZA
RESEARCH ASSOCIATE

and

ROBERT E. SNOW
RESEARCH ASSOCIATE
CENTER FOR PUBLIC AND URBAN RESEARCH
GEORGIA STATE UNIVERSITY
ATLANTA, GEORGIA 30303

and

EUGENIO D. GARZA
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
REGION IV
101 MARIETTA STREET
ATLANTA, GEORGIA 30321

THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION
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ABSTRACT

DEVELOPING A COOPERATIVE/POSTSECONDARY MODEL FOR INCREASING EMPLOYABILITY OF ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED GROUPS

This paper analyzes case histories of two Georgia State University (GSU) "cooperative models" for the delivery of career education and formal academic services to "economically disadvantaged" groups. Information gained from these experiences and from data collected through a recent GSU survey of 300 Central Business District employers in Atlanta, is used to identify six problems relevant to the development of such cooperative models. Specific recommendations to address the problem areas are made; among them is a cooperative model with an expanded role for the postsecondary that includes a "mediating" or "brokering" role supplementing a formal training role.

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DEVELOPING A COOPERATIVE POSTSECONDARY MODEL FOR INCREASING EMPLOYABILITY OF ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED GROUPS

INTRODUCTION

After presentation of some background information, two case histories of projects which developed cooperative models linking the University and a Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) Prime Sponsor are presented. These models were developed through University initiative in an effort to make both the University and CETA more accountable in serving the needs of two subgroups of economically disadvantaged local residents. The results desired from the improved service delivery models were greater productivity from persons trained by the programs and greater community service accountability of the postsecondary institution. The information derived from executing the "cooperative models" is examined and supplemented with data from a survey of Central Business District (CBD) employers. This combination of data is used to structure a discussion of problems encountered when developing and executing cooperative model projects and to identify strategies for increasing the employability of economically disadvantaged persons.

Projects reported herein were sponsored, in part, by funding provided by the U.S. Department of Labor through the Atlanta CETA Prime Sponsor and Fulton County Prime Sponsor. The survey of Atlanta's Central Business District Employers was developed pursuant to a contract with the Citizens and Southern National Bank of Georgia. Opinions expressed in this paper reflect those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the sponsoring contractors. The authors express appreciation to the numerous staff members of the Center for Public and Urban Research, GSU, for their various roles in these projects. We particularly acknowledge Margaret E. Gaddy for her vital assistance in preparation of this manuscript.

THE PROBLEM: THE CREDENTIALS GAP

Persistent unemployment among minority group members (primarily Blacks and Hispanics) has historically been greater than for majority group members, especially majority group males. In many urban areas this unemployment problem is acute. An estimated 60 percent of all unemployed Black teenagers live in central cities and with half of this unemployed group being concentrated in poverty areas (Mangum and Seninger, 1978). Female heads of household, both youth and adults, often have special employment problems which mitigate against full employment. In central cities, 40 percent of Black families are headed by women, as compared to 14 percent of White urban families (Mangum and Seninger, 1978, p. 1). Data from numerous sources, including a Center for Urban Research and Service's 1976 survey of 7,079 Fulton County and Atlanta households, indicate that this national employment pattern is also apparent in Atlanta (Center for Urban Research and Service, 1976). Additionally, in Atlanta, these two groups (minority youth and minority female heads of household) have fewer skills and lower levels of skill development than employed majority group members (Snow, 1976).

Past educational failures of minority residents of the Atlanta area are reflected by the disparity between Atlanta's Black and White residents' number of years of schooling. The Atlanta/Fulton County Survey (CURS, 1976) found that among the Atlantans 18 or older interviewed, only 43.7 percent of Blacks had completed high school, while 70.7 percent of Whites had completed high school or more. In an era

of "accountability," educators are being pressured to find new ways to address the "credentials gap" represented in these figures. This "credentials gap" is often cited as a major reason for the continuing disparity between Nonwhite and White employment patterns (Levitan and Taggart, 1971).

Today there is increasing demand for educational institutions (including postsecondaries) to serve better those groups who have historically been underserved. There are increased public expectations that institutions of higher education will reduce the institutional barriers limiting access and adapt their curricula so as to address more adequately special needs of targeted groups.

Persistent joblessness, especially among minority youth, has grown at alarming rates in the last two decades. Recent federal initiatives have shown particular interest in encouraging postsecondary agencies to respond to disadvantaged youth in new and creative ways.* One of the strategies recently encouraged has been an exploration of a partnership between institutions of higher education and Comprehensive Employment and Training Act Prime Sponsors.

Cooperative models to link higher education and CETA have taken specific forms in serving specific target groups. The following is a discussion of two cooperative models developed by Georgia State University's (GSU) College of Urban Life. These models were developed

*For example, Department of Labor/Department of Education calls for proposals on jointly funded projects for innovative programming addressing unemployed youth.

through two employment and training projects. The first project addressed youth and the second adults. Each project will be discussed in detail along with the rationale behind project development.

PROJECT EXCEL: CASE HISTORY #1

The Exemplary Collegiate Experiential Learning Program (EXCEL) was an intervention strategy developed by the University to improve the accessibility of the University to low income and minority students. As a cooperative partnership between the University and the Atlanta CETA Prime Sponsor, Project EXCEL marshalled community resources to give CETA-eligible youth an opportunity to earn an Associate of Science degree in Urban Life.

The project was part of a Youthwork, Inc. national demonstration, and was designed to link "work and learning" by giving academic credit to students for skills and competencies gained at worksites. The project was unique among the national demonstration projects in the "academic credit for work experience" area, since it was operated by a major University.

According to the Report of the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee (1973), one of the major objectives which youth programs should address is the acquisition of skills that expand the "personal resources" of youth. EXCEL addressed this objective through: a) providing an avenue through which inner-city youth may be brought into an Associate of Science degree program specifically adapted to their needs; and b) providing specialized career counseling

utilizing professional and paraprofessional role models; and c) expanding learning and living skills to a level of competency that facilitates a competitive position within the job market.

The Panel on Youth's second recommended objective involves affording youth an opportunity to acquire responsibilities which affect persons with whom the youth will be interacting. The EXCEL project addressed this objective by building into the learning model the following: a) experientially-based learning through work experience, career development counseling, and academic counseling which provided avenues whereby the young person could learn effective coping skills and new skills in taking responsibility for her/himself; and b) achievement in an academic program so the young person could begin to develop a sense of the importance of cooperativeness, of leadership, and of the interdependence of these two important factors in the maturation process.

The Panel on Youth recommended movement between school and workplace as one strategy by which the two objectives could be met. The EXCEL project was built upon this premise by incorporating the worksite as a central focus for the acquisition of competencies, and this "experiential" approach became a central component of the curriculum model. Thus, as outlined above, the EXCEL project contained four basic components. Each of these components is described below.

(1) Outreach, Recruitment, and Intake

The project staff developed specialized recruitment techniques to identify potential applicants. After eligibility screening and completion of necessary documentation (in cooperation with the CETA

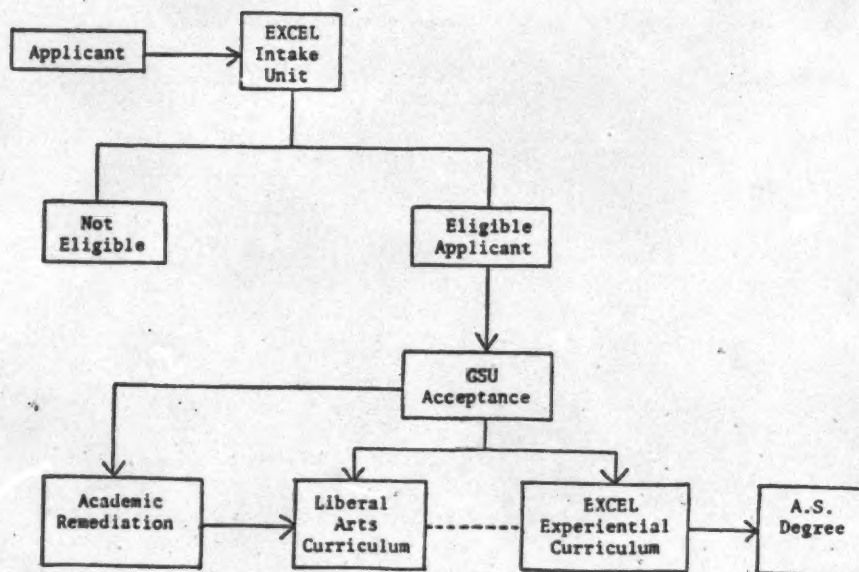
Prime Sponsor) the student applied for admission to Georgia State University. The Intake component was responsible for assisting applicants with all phases of this process (i.e., SAT, application, student aid, etc.).

After acceptance to GSU, the Intake Unit staff administered a battery of achievement, aptitude, occupational, personality and psycho/social attitude assessments. These assessments were employed by project staff to develop detailed individual learning plans, for specialized counseling activities, and for the development of worksite placements.

The flow of clients throughout the process is summarized graphically in Figure 1. These procedures resulted in the enrollment of 93 students. Students were predominantly Black (89%) and female (75%). Ages ranged from 17 to 21 years, but most were 18 to 19 years old (53%). Many had children or other family responsibilities. The family income levels of all EXCEL students met CETA low income eligibility requirements. Most students lived in areas immediately surrounding the Atlanta Central Business District (Prather, 1980).

The students admitted to Project EXCEL were considered "high risk" for college success since their entry level basic skills were very low. Using the "grade-normed" Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) program staff assessed EXCEL students' basic educational skills. Math skills were below the 10th grade level for 75 percent of EXCEL students, and fifty percent of the students scored below the 10th grade level on reading comprehensive and mechanical expression measures. The University admissions office calculates a predicted grade point average (GPA) using

Figure 1
EXCEL Client Flow



high school GPA's and SAT scores. Only those students who have predicted GPA's of at least 2.00 overall, and in both Math and English, are admitted to the University with full student status. Students who are not accepted with full student status can be admitted with the provision that they complete two or more sections of remedial work in the Developmental Studies Division of the University. Approximately half of the EXCEL students were accepted with the conditional status. The predicted GPA for EXCEL students admitted to the Developmental Studies Division exhibited a range from 1.00 to 2.50, with seventy-five percent of the students having predicted averages of less than 1.75 (Prather, 1980, p. 46).

(2) Counseling Activities

Specialized counseling services were developed by the EXCEL staff since lower income young persons may suffer from a lack of motivation to achieve and low self-esteem (Mangum and Seninger, 1978). Research on the vocational development patterns of lower income adolescents has shown these youths to score generally lower on vocational maturity assessments than do their age cohorts from more economically advantaged environments. Ansell and Hansen (1971) found lower income youth to lag two years behind their middle-class age cohorts in vocational development.

Expecting these problems, EXCEL counselors attempted to foster a counseling relationship with their student clients that was conducted in an atmosphere of openness and acceptance, understanding and mutual positive regard. This helped students better understand their own

motives, goals, behavior, and environment. This understanding facilitated student self assessment and encouraged modification of their behavior, patterns of perception, and/or attitudes. The counselor attempted to foster self-understanding, acceptance, and internal direction by students while utilizing this carefully structured relationship. Students were required to participate in structured group and individualized counseling activities each week.

(3) Experiential Curriculum

To grant academic credit for learning from work experience required a curriculum blending classroom activity, worksite experience and support services into a learning environment for the student. EXCEL students were enrolled in a program of study for the Associate Degree in Urban Life, and thus were required to meet degree requirements in Humanities, Natural Sciences, Social Sciences and Urban Life. These courses could be utilized by the student for the two-year degree or to move into a four-year degree program without a loss of hours. Within the 30 hours required in Urban Life, EXCEL students were offered 20 hours that could be earned through a combination of field experience (worksite based) and classroom activity.

The first course in the EXCEL sequence was a totally classroom-based career development course (combined with structured counseling activities). The second course was designed to teach the student how to utilize the worksite experience as a learning environment in conjunction with the courses to follow. Emphasis was placed upon the development of data

gathering, analytic and problem-solving skills, as well as how to develop a learning contract. The next three courses in the experiential series focused upon learning about the urban environment.

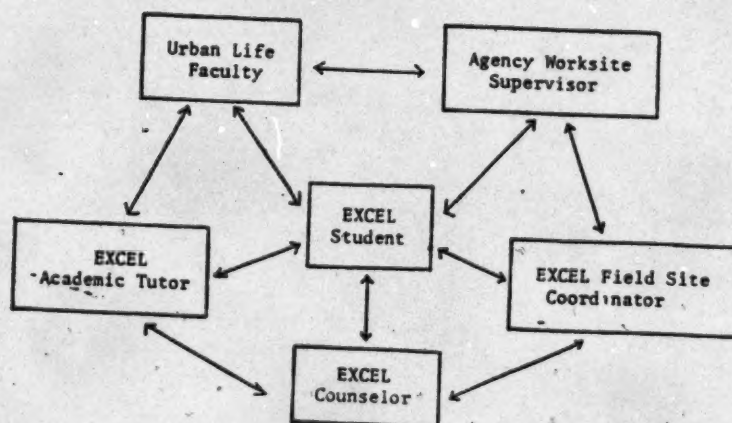
A learning contract between instructor and students was utilized with the worksite as the focal point. The students and faculty member negotiated a learning contract with major responsibility for contract development increasingly passing to the student as the series of courses progressed. In this progression of courses, classroom activity moved from the formal lecture to a seminar format. To conclude the sequence, the students participated in a completely field-based seminar course which forced them to integrate the learning acquired by solving or developing a plan of action for a problem in the agency to which they were assigned.

Some students in Project EXCEL were placed in a paid worksite experience with human service delivery system agencies for 15 hours a week, unless they already had, or developed, their own paid worksite. It was this agency worksite experience which was tied to the courses in Urban Life discussed above.

Coordination of the worksite placement activities was the responsibility of an EXCEL staff member. Responsibilities included placement, monitoring, and facilitation of communication between student, faculty, and field supervisor. The role of this coordinator was vital to the success of the program since the success of any field experience hinges on cooperation among the student, faculty member, and work supervisor.

The components of the curriculum approach are depicted graphically in Figure 2.

Figure 2
EXCEL Curriculum



(4) Evaluation

Since the EXCEL project was a national demonstration project testing service delivery models for economically disadvantaged unemployed youth, "knowledge development" was a critical component of the EXCEL design. In order to maximize knowledge gained from the project, two third-party evaluation efforts were undertaken. The first of these efforts was conducted by Ray Rist under contract with the Department of Labor. Each site, including Atlanta, had an observer whose efforts were coordinated by Rist's office. Little information identifiable by site has been released from this effort, although a complete report on all project sites was submitted to DOL. The second third-party evaluation was conducted by the Center for Urban Research and Service and included process monitoring activities and outcomes evaluation.

The process monitoring component insured that demographic, scholastic and attitudinal data were maintained and resulted in a profile of EXCEL students one year after project initiation. Most EXCEL students were Black females and, as a group, "were similar to other disadvantaged student groups with low measured scholastic aptitude and generally low levels of basic skills" (Prather, 1980, p. 1). At that time, while it was felt that the worksite experiences appeared to be successful, performance in traditional academic work (exclusive of the experimental curricula) left much to be desired. Since that time, however, some students have successfully completed an Associate degree program and a few appear to be only one or two quarters away from graduation.

Many EXCEL students dropped out (for various reasons), and most of those who were referred for academic remediation are no longer in school. Continuing evaluation of the EXCEL project, therefore, is now focusing upon the differences between those who remained in the program and those who did not and between "successes" and "non-successes" (dropping out is not necessarily viewed as unsuccessful). A more detailed discussion of the evaluation of EXCEL program outcomes has been prepared and will be presented in Division J.

PROJECT CREST: CASE HISTORY #2

The College of Urban Life also worked with Fulton County as a local CETA Prime Sponsor to develop a short-term training program addressing the needs of CETA-eligible adults (CETA Title II-B funded). The purpose of such Title II-B programs is to enhance the employability of individuals by upgrading or developing skills necessary in seeking, obtaining and retaining employment. All clients enrolled for training (N=70) were female and most were Black (75%), heads of household, and ranged in age from 17 to 58 years. The program was a combination three-month public service employment and clerical skills training program. We dubbed it Project CREST (Clerical and Related Employment Skills Training Program).

Much of the literature concerning career development stems from research among the middle class and perhaps tells us little about career development among economically disadvantaged adults. Some researchers believe that the unemployed minority youth of today ". . . may become the hard-core unemployed adult worker of the future" (Mangum and Seninger, 1978, p. 92).

Historically, there have been many reasons why people are unemployed. Research in this area, although not exhaustive, has been extensive, too extensive to be reviewed here. However, it has been noted by employment and training specialists, educators, and researchers that a primary reason that some individuals are unemployed is the lack of either general or specific work-related skills. In addition, the literature suggests that even when a person possesses a technical skill or is competing for a job requiring no particular skill, certain individuals seem to be at a distinct disadvantage. They appear to lack crucial work related skills and attitudes (Adkins, 1974). These individuals have not adopted mainstream middle-class values related to work, patterns of speech, or modes of expression. Many of the behaviors they exhibit, or fail to exhibit, while perfectly normal in their own everyday environments, are taboo in the workplace. Many never receive the opportunity to demonstrate their ability to work because they are screened out before employment. Others are dropped after obtaining employment because of social or work habits which they bring to their jobs; i.e., gossiping, absenteeism, over-familiarity with other employees, inappropriate business dress, inability to work with supervisors, co-workers, clients, customers, or others, and so forth.

Thus the literature suggests that any employment and training program which adequately addresses the needs of economically disadvantaged persons should not only teach technical skills, but also must develop essential work-related skills. Those specific work-related skills are necessary both for those individuals who are first entering

and for those re-entering the job market. The necessity for such training is becoming increasingly recognized by employment and training specialists and educators alike. Among many public school systems, this aspect of the students' education is considered so important that it is made a part of a regular curriculum. In one Georgia system, for example, a career development course is a required course for all high school students. However, such courses are rare in most states.

Given these problems, the CREST program was designed to address an acute need for job seeking, job acquisition, and job-retention skills found among the Public Service Employment (PSE) clients. The provision of technical skills almost became a secondary goal of the training program. The program integrated work-related skills training with clerical and secretarial training, and in some cases, remediation in basic academic skills. To accomplish the training goals, instructional modules were developed and delivered in classroom size groups of 20-25 students, with instruction stratified on the basis of previous training or experience in clerical and related skills. Among the fifty clients completing the program, 24 percent (12) were transitioned to unsubsidized work, six percent (3) entered or re-entered postsecondary educational programs, and 70 percent (35) were employed in public service jobs as clerks or secretaries for Fulton County government. Twenty-five clients were tutored for the General Equivalency Diploma (GED) exams and 68 percent (17) of those tutored received the GED while in the program.

The CREST program was operated as an external continuing education program by the University. Clients earned Continuing Education Units

(CEU's) and a certificate of completion, but not college credit. Some clients were transitioned to regular University enrollment. The CETA/Higher Education service delivery model developed through Project CREST had considerable precedent in other Southeastern states, i.e., Louisiana and Kentucky. These training programs, found at the college level, are typically operated in community college or vocational-technical institutional settings rather than in a university setting.

THE EMPLOYER SURVEY: THE ENVIRONMENT FACED BY GRADUATES OF THE MODEL PROGRAMS

This section details results from a survey of Atlanta Central Business District Employers.* These data describe features the employment opportunity structure that graduates from the programs discussed in the previous case histories faced upon completion of their programs. Specifically, the information details patterns of recruitment and selection among CBD firms that mitigate against graduates of the cooperative model programs seeking to make economically disadvantaged persons employable. These data suggest local labor market conditions which should be taken into account when attempting to design and implement a successful model.

* These data are a portion of a larger analysis of Atlanta regional labor market conditions affecting the supply and quality of entry-level clerical and banking personnel. Georgia State University's Center for Public and Urban Research (formerly Center for Urban Research and Service), conducted a mail survey of Central Business District employers in the Spring of 1981 (Ockerman-Garza & Snow, 1981).

Sample

A sample of 984 employers was drawn from the Central Business District combining random and purposive sampling in a stratified design. Most basically, this design attempted to enumerate all those businesses and firms in the five CBD area zip codes which employed 25 persons or more and attempted to sample randomly among the remaining firms in the area.

Large firms (over 25 employees) represent a small proportion of the total number of CBD employers, although their demands on the labor market are very significant. Given their small numbers and large impact, enumeration was chosen to maximize the available data about this group of firms. Four hundred and eighty large firms were enumerated. Smaller firms (25 or less employees) are much more numerous, with the class of 1-5 employees being very large. A random sample of 504 was selected among these firms to provide data about smaller firms. Table 1 details the distribution of firm size by zip code and the size of various strata in the sampling design.

The combination of enumerating the larger size category firms (over 25 employees) and sampling among the smaller firms was chosen to insure representative and reliable data about both size categories of firms. A true random sample would have entailed a virtual enumeration of the large firms to achieve a reasonable error term for estimates from the strata. Therefore a decision was made to simplify the sampling mechanics in this stratum by using enumeration rather than sampling. A simple random sample was chosen among the small firms.

TABLE 1. CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT FIRMS BY SIZE

Zip Code	Size of Employment								Total
	1-5	6-10	11-25	26-50	51-100	101-250	251-500	500+	
30303	1347	343	237	104	48	29	16	17	2141
30308	504	146	111	43	18	14	12	8	856
30309	670	160	165	55	31	23	9	4	1117
30313	131	50	60	19	12	6	0	0	278
30361	84	37	16	12	4	4	1	1	159
Total	2736	736	589	233	113	76	38	30	4551
Sample Mailed*	340	90	74	230	110	72	38	30	

small firm sample=504

large firm enumeration=480

984

Source: Contacts Influential, 1980/81
Market Planning Section

The return rate to the survey was approximately 33 percent, yielding a sample of 300 CBD employers (125 large firms and 75 small firms). Characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 2. Seventy-nine percent (79.3%) of the employers were private sector for profit firms, and a majority (59.8%) were service industries.

Turnover and CBD Recruitment Problems

Table 3 illustrates the experience of recruiting and retaining various types of entry-level employees in the CBD. Table 4 includes the average (mean) turnover rates and starting salaries for categories of employees as well as the proportion of firms which reported difficulty in attracting qualified applicants for these position. These data are also classified by firm size.

The general turnover rate for all positions is approximately 26 percent or, approximately one employee in four of a CBD work force leaves or is terminated every year. Table 3 illustrates little variance in general turnover rates by type of firm. However, when one views turnovers across categories of employees, Table 4 indicates that CBD firms experience the lowest turnover rates among managerial and administrative employees. Higher rates are found for sales, clerical workers, and operators, and the highest rates are found among service workers and workers in the "Other" category. These rates suggest that employees with specific skills, such as professional-technical or clerical, are more likely to remain with a specific CBD employer than are service workers at lower skill levels.

TABLE 2. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE OF CBD EMPLOYERS

	Small Firms	Large Firms	All Firms		Small Firms	Large Firms	All Firms
Local, Regional, National				Nature of Business Cycle			
Local	56.9	72.0	62.6	Seasonal	8.1	4.0	6.5
Regional	13.8	2.7	9.6	Cyclical	10.5	2.7	7.5
National	29.3	25.3	27.8	Same All Year	81.5	89.3	84.4
Comprised of Independent Subunits				Other	0	4.0	0.5
Yes	23.3	32.0	26.7	Annual Workforce Size			
No	76.7	68.0	73.3	Full Time Less Than 5		60.0	23.1
Nature of Organization				5 to 24		40.0	15.6
Labor	0.8		0.5	25 to 99	59.7		37.2
Public Sector	1.6	1.3	1.5	100 to 499	30.6		19.1
Public Funded Nonprofit	7.3	5.3	6.6	500+	9.7		5.0
Private Funded Nonprofit	13.0	10.7	12.1	Part Time Less than 5	60.5		72.9
Private Sector Profit	77.2	82.7	79.3	5 to 24	21.8		16.1
Type of Industry				25 to 99	12.1		7.5
Manufacturing	5.6	4.0	5.0	100 to 499	4.8		3.0
Service	58.1	67.2	59.8	500+	0.8		0.5
Retail	11.3	21.3	15.1	Proportion of Annual Workforce			
Wholesale	4.8	1.3	3.5	Under 25 Years Old (Mean)	24.7	16.3	21.6
Banking Finance Insurance				Over 50 Years Old (Mean)	17.4	21.3	18.9
Real Estate	17.7	8.0	14.1				
Transportation, Communication							
Utilities	2.4	2.7	2.5				

TABLE 3. OVERALL TURNOVER RATES BY TYPE OF CBD FIRMS

Type Firm	26.2
Local	27.9
Regional	17.9
National	24.9
Public Sector	31.0
Public Funded Non-profit	18.6
Private Funded Non-profit	27.3
Private Sector Profit	26.8
Manufacturing	20.8
Service	28.0
Retail	30.7
Wholesale	21.11
Banking (Fire)	19.8
Transportation	28.9
Business Cycle	
Seasonal	38.7
Cyclical	15.2
Same All Year	26.7

TABLE 4. PROBLEM HIRING PERSONNEL AND TURNOVER RATES BY JOB CATEGORIES IN THE CENTRAL BUSINESS DISTRICT

Job Categories	All Firms			Small Firms			Large Firms		
	Turnover Rate	CBD Hiring Problem	Average Starting Salary	Turnover Rate	CBD Hiring Problem	Average Starting Salary	Turnover Rate	CBD Hiring Problem	Average Starting Salary
Managerial-Administrative	7.9	21.4	18300	7.2	21.4	18200	9.5	21.4	18500
Professional-Technical	17.5	37.5	17200	15.6	41.7	16400	22.7	8.3	19600
Sales Workers	22.0	25.0	15400	21.6	31.3	14700	22.8	12.5	17200
Clerical-Public Contact	23.1	40.4	9900	24.6	37.8	10200	20.2	45.0	9200
Clerical-Nonpublic Contact	19.4	30.3	10600	18.8	32.1	10900	23.6	20.0	8900
Craftsmen and Kindred	13.9	46.7	9400	13.6	46.2	9600	16.5	50.0	8400
Operators	20.9	15.4	8400	20.7	16.7	8700	21.7	—	7100
Service Employees	36.8	17.6	8200	38.4	21.4	7900	29.2	—	10000
Other	31.8	33.3	11000	31.6	28.6	11200	32.6	66.7	10000

The survey included an item that asked CBD employers if they had problems attracting qualified applicants for the positions that result from the turnover discussed above. Table 4 demonstrates considerable variance in the severity of the problem among the job-type categories and between the experience of small and large firms by job-type category. Some of this variability may reflect the available supply of persons with specific skills. For example, the craftsmen and kindred job-type categories apparently provide the greatest difficulty in CBD recruitment in both small and large firms, and this difficulty may simply reflect CBD labor market conditions. In contrast, service workers and operatives are types of employees that apparently pose little problem in recruitment and hiring, due to the lower level and general availability of skill necessary to function in these jobs.

Table 5 details the methods typically used to solicit and hire entry-level employees among CBD firms. The item used to solicit response from CBD employers afforded firms the opportunity to rate their frequency of using various recruiting avenues to solicit new entry-level clerical employees. Of all the methods included, it appears that referrals from current employees, general word-of-mouth, newspaper want ads, or a combination of these are the most frequently used means of soliciting applicants (Table 5, all firms). Interviewing walk-in applicants and persons referred by private employment agencies are also popular methods. If the "Rare" and "Never Use" response categories are combined to form an "Unlikely to Use" category, it becomes obvious that certain sources of entry-level applicants are not used

TABLE 5.

METHODS USED TO HIRE ENTRY-LEVEL EMPLOYEES AND THEIR FREQUENCY USE AMONG CBD FIRMS

	All Firms:						Unlikely*
	Often	Frequency	Some	Rare	Never	n =	
Walk-in	12.4	8.1	22.4	34.8	22.4	n = 161	57.2
Referrals from Current Employees	19.9	27.1	38.0	10.8	4.2	n = 166	15.0
Referrals from Employment Service	9.6	8.3	21.0	31.8	29.3	n = 157	61.1
Internal Job Posting	8.4	11.6	21.3	20.0	38.7	n = 155	58.7
Newspaper Want Ads	26.5	20.5	15.7	13.9	23.5	n = 166	37.4
Referrals from CETA/Community Programs	—	4.6	20.3	31.4	43.8	n = 153	75.2
Referrals from High Schools	0.6	3.2	13.5	27.7	54.8	n = 155	85.5
Referrals from Tech-Vocational Schools	—	11.6	31.6	25.2	31.6	n = 155	56.8
Referrals from Private Employment Agency	13.3	11.4	20.9	27.2	27.2	n = 158	54.4
Union Members	—	0.7	2.7	8.7	87.9	n = 149	96.6
General Word of Mouth	6.9	15.6	36.9	26.2	14.4	n = 150	40.6
Other	6.3	15.6	9.4	9.4	59.4	n = 32	68.8

*Combination of "rare" and "never" categories.

TABLE 5 (CONTINUED). METHODS USED TO HIRE

	Small Firms					
	Often	Frequency	Some	Rare	Never	
Walk-in	12.0	2.0	14.0	30.0	42.0	n = 50
Referrals from Current Employees	27.8	25.9	27.8	9.3	9.3	n = 54
Referrals from Employment Service	10.4	6.3	20.8	14.6	47.9	n = 48
Internal Job Posting	2.1	4.3	14.9	8.5	70.2	n = 47
Newspaper Want Ads	25.5	16.4	10.9	10.9	36.4	n = 55
Referrals from CETA/Community	—	4.4	13.3	15.6	66.7	n = 45
Referrals from High Schools	2.2	2.2	10.9	15.2	69.6	n = 46
Referrals from Vocational-Tech Schools	—	18.8	20.8	8.3	52.1	n = 48
Referrals from Private Employment Agency	8.7	4.3	17.4	21.7	47.8	n = 46
Referrals from Union Members	—	—	2.3	—	97.7	n = 44
General Word of Mouth	7.8	25.5	27.5	15.7	23.5	n = 51
Other	—	20.0	10.0	10.0	60.0	n = 10

TABLE 5 (CONTINUED). METHODS USED TO HIRE

	Large Firms					
	Often	Frequency	Some	Rare	Never	
Walk-in	12.6	10.8	26.1	36.9	13.5	— n = 111
Referrals from Current Employees	16.1	27.7	42.9	11.6	1.8	— n = 112
Referrals from Employment Service	9.2	9.2	21.1	39.4	21.1	— n = 109
Internal Job Posting	11.1	14.8	24.1	25.0	25.0	— n = 108
Newspaper Want Ads	27.0	22.5	18.0	15.3	17.1	— n = 111
Referrals from CETA/Community	—	4.6	23.1	38.0	34.3	— n = 108
Referrals from High Schools	—	3.7	14.7	33.0	48.6	— n = 109
Referrals from Vocational-Tech Schools	—	8.4	36.4	32.7	22.4	— n = 107
Referrals from Private Employment Agency	15.2	14.3	22.3	29.5	18.8	— n = 112
Referrals from Union Members	—	1.0	2.9	12.4	83.8	— n = 108
General Word of Mouth	6.4	11.0	41.3	31.2	10.1	— n = 109
Other	9.1	13.6	9.1	9.1	59.1	— n = 22

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by CBD employers. The data suggest that referrals from public sector agencies, such as community and CETA training programs, high schools, and the State of Georgia Employment Service, are not sought or used by CBD employers, regardless of firm size. Referrals from unions or union members are also unlikely to be used, although this may simply reflect the largely non-unionized nature of most clerical jobs in the CBD. The lack of use of public sector referrals among CBD employers probably reflects a bias against these applicant referral agencies. Some persons responding to this series of questions on the survey added supplemental comments which indicated they believed the screening and referral operations by the public sector were useless.

Caliber of Applicants for Entry-Level Positions Among CBD Employers

Of particular interest in the survey of CBD employers were questions of the caliber of applicants for entry-level positions and the reasons why those who apply may be unsuitable for employment. One way of viewing the responses to a question on reasons that normally lead to refusing to hire an entry-level applicant is to assume that the most frequently cited reasons indicate the deficiencies most commonly manifest in applicants. Table 6 illustrates that the most frequently cited deficiencies among applicants involve basic skills (75.2%), instability indicated (54.9%), and poor appearance (49.6%). These data suggest that CBD employers' most crucial problem in recruitment for entry-level positions may be in attracting that portion of the labor force with sufficient training, skills, and job-related habits. The

TABLE 6. FACTORS WHICH PREVENT AN EMPLOYER FROM HIRING AN ENTRY-LEVEL APPLICANT IN THE CBD

Reason for Refusing to Hire:	% Yes		
	Large	Small	All
Lack Basic Skills	75.2	56.9	69.0
Technical-Business Machines	34.5	25.9	31.6
Communications	34.5	37.9	35.7
Mathematics	10.6	13.8	11.7
Education	15.0	25.9	18.7
Poor Appearance	49.6	65.5	55.0
Transportation	7.1	5.2	6.4
Compensation	23.0	13.8	19.9
Instability Indicated	54.9	51.7	53.8
References	32.7	22.4	29.2
Conflict with Work/School Schedule	8.8	12.1	9.9
Polygraph	5.3	—	3.5
Investigating Agency Reports	10.6	12.1	11.1
Unsuitable for White Collar Employment	10.6	12.1	11.1
Other	3.5	5.2	4.1

factors which prevent an entry-level applicant from being hired by a CBD employer suggest that either the pool of applicants in the CBD is somewhat lacking in skills and training or that the CBD applicant pool is much the same as the applicant pool available in the metro-Atlanta area. That is, the caliber of the general pool itself may be poor.

Table 7 quantifies standards concerning education and training required by CBD employers. It presents data on education, skill requirements, and testing of skills prior to employment among CBD firms. The vast majority (84.8%) require some minimum educational attainment for consideration as an entry-level employee. Of those with educational requirements, very few (4.9%) will accept persons with less than a high school diploma, and most require at least a high school diploma (57.4%).

Similar patterns are found for special skills requirements. Almost all firms have skill requirements associated with entry-level positions, although relatively few of those who require special skills evaluate entry-level employees prior to employment. The low level of testing may reflect the ability of some firms to screen applicants based on their education and work history, or perhaps, policies of evaluating entry-level employees during initial employment.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The cooperative models discussed in the two case histories were developed through a University initiative that sought to produce opportunities for economically disadvantaged persons to acquire academic and work-related skills. Acquisition of such skills are expected to make these individuals not only more "marketable" in terms of employment,

but also more productive employees once employed. The acquisition of "credentials" (i.e., a college degree) has been shown by some (Jencks, 1979) to be a strong predictor of a minority person's employment success.

The development of models which increase the availability of the University's resources to low-income individuals especially those who have historically been underserved by educational institutions (i.e., minorities), increases the ability of all cooperating parties (academic, local and federal governments) to serve these groups. By introducing higher education into a cooperative model, the ability of the employment and training system to address the needs of a specific segment of its client population is increased, and hence, the overall accountability of the employment and training system also increases.

The cooperative models discussed here deal with the realities of funding and funding mechanisms as they then existed. This is not to suggest that such models are necessarily the "ideal" approach to linking traditional sets of academic skills to learning acquired from, or necessary for, employment.

In implementing and developing the models discussed above, information has been developed which appears to have implications for policy in employment and training programs and postsecondary involvement in such programs. What follows is a discussion of some of these issues and several recommendations drawn from the authors' interaction with other professionals in the region and the CBD employers' survey detailed above.

(1) Public Sector Versus Private Sector Placements

A major educational concern related to the worksite experience is the impact of placing students in the public versus private sector. Some demonstration projects have placed students in the private sector. An initial policy interpretation by the CETA Prime Sponsor suggested that students in Project EXCEL could be placed in the private sector using training allowances. Then the Region IV Department of Labor ruled that students could not be placed in the private sector under any circumstances. While this caused confusion for the EXCEL project and for the students involved, it raises a more fundamental question: if students in postsecondary programs are to pursue career investigation in employment areas outside the public sector, and the private sector work agencies are excluded, does policy restrict options and career choices at a point in time when students are being asked to explore all options. Since students in fieldsite programs are frequently employed upon completion of the program by the agency or business in which they served, it seems advisable to place as many students as possible in the private sector. It makes little sense to train students exclusively for public sector jobs where competition is already high and where the number of available jobs may decline. Nor does it seem reasonable to move a student from a tax supported program to a tax supported job when the potential to develop placement in the private sector is available.

TABLE 7. EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCES REQUIREMENTS FOR ENTRY-LEVEL POSITIONS*

		%		
	Small	Large	All	
Require Previous Experience	78.3	64.5	69.5	Yes
Minimum Education Requirement	83.6	85.5	84.8	Yes
10th Grade	4.9	5.8	5.5	} Of the 84.8% "yes" to above, etc.
High School Diploma	57.4	69.2	64.8	
Post High School Work	18.0	12.5	14.5	
Special Courses	16.4	9.6	12.1	
Other	3.3	2.9	3.0	
Require Special Skills	83.3	71.7	76.0	..
Require Test For Entry Level Job	32.0	45.2	40.2	

*These percentages are based on small numbers of responses. The items in this table were left blank by many respondents, perhaps due to their location at the end of the questionnaire.

(2) Incompatible Systems and Conflicting Regulations

The politicized environment in which local CETA Prime Sponsors now operate has seldom proven to be a supportive atmosphere for educational agencies' involvement. The local Prime's personnel have, in many instances, not demonstrated understanding of, sensitivity to, nor appreciation for, the issues confronting educational systems in their efforts to serve economically disadvantaged groups. Often the funding cycle of CETA is "out of sync" with those of educational institutions, and this presents additional barriers to higher education's involvement. Forward funding of CETA or at least development of funding cycles more closely in line with those of educational agencies is indicated, if educational agencies and CETA are to work more closely.

In addition to the problems inherent in the current funding mechanism, fiscal accounting difficulties occur when an educational agency is a subcontractor or primary contractor to a CETA Prime Sponsor or the Department of Labor, since two or more sets of regulations are in operation (i.e., Department of Labor, Department of Education and State/Local regulations). Such regulations may be in direct conflict, and the compliance with all sets of regulations may be prohibitively expensive in view of the investment of personnel time in fiscal accounting and reporting required by these agencies.

Another example of the conflict in policies and guidelines governing programming is the emphasis on limiting options for youth training to two-year postsecondary education programs, and to relatively short-duration "one-shot" training programs for adults. These program emphases

would appear to discourage four-year colleges and universities from participation in CETA-type training programs.

(3) Lack of Coordination Among Employment and Training Systems

Responsibility for employment, training and educational programs is shared by many agencies and shared responsibility contributes to a lack of coordination. This lack is especially visible at the local level. In addition, it sometimes stems from a lack of inter-agency coordination at the federal level. Thus, not only do federal agencies often fail to coordinate among themselves, but often operations within a single federal office are not coordinated. This was illustrated locally when the Office of Youth Programs, U.S. Department of Labor (which funded the Youthwork, Inc. Projects) funded another Atlanta Prime Sponsor higher education demonstration program (the "Voucher Program") which was seen by many to be in direct competition with the EXCEL Project.

(4) Problems of Block Grant Approach in an Urban Environment

The arbitrary jurisdictional lines vested in the CETA funding mechanism made it difficult for the University to seek continuation of the training programs described above after the initial funding was terminated. The Atlanta metropolitan area has five CETA Prime Sponsors and clients from only one sponsor could be served in each project described above. Therefore, no linkages or support could be built for the training programs among the other jurisdictions. Since the student body of GSU comes from all five CETA jurisdictions, there was some

demonstrated lack of University support since the programs were not viewed as serving the entire "community" of GSU. It would appear that a funding mechanism which would allow the University to serve the entire "community" would be more conducive to both continued involvement of the University in cooperative service delivery models, and maintenance of programs after federal money is withdrawn or reduced.

(5) Undesirability of Public Employment Service Clients
as Perceived by CBD Employers

As discussed above, data from the survey of Atlanta CBD employers suggest that applicants for entry-level positions are often undesirable from the employer's point of view. It also demonstrated that CBD employers do not seek or use public employment agencies. This disuse of public sector referrals probably reflects a bias against these applicant referral agencies. Thus, the results from the two case studies and the employers' survey indicate both a need to upgrade skills of potential employees and to overcome employers' bias against public sector training or placement services for job applicants. Training models can be developed by postsecondary institutions to provide both work-related and general education skills. Given negative employer evaluation of public employment referral services, the postsecondary institution may also want to develop, and add to the training model, a "brokering" and "mediating" role for placement of economically disadvantaged clients in private sector positions. If this is possible, a cooperative model building upon linkages between employers, and the postsecondary might link "work" to academic skills more effectively.

Even within a non-credit training program, such as the CREST Program, the postsecondary could play a brokering role for the placement of clients in private sector positions and mediate some of the negative perceptions of public sector employment and training services now held by employers. The postsecondary's involvement would lend credibility to both the training program and the clients of such programs.

(6) Lack of Research Concerning Postsecondary Involvement
in Cooperative Models Linking Education and Work

There is a general lack of evaluation among cooperative model programs involving postsecondaries seeking to link traditional academic competencies with competencies acquired from work settings. Evaluation of the two projects discussed above is continuing, and future programs need to include rigorous empirical outcomes evaluations.

The two case histories presented herein should increase our understanding of both the educational technology that may increase employability of economically disadvantaged students in the labor market and the processes through which institutions may adapt their programs to become accountable to the needs of targeted groups. While analyses of the effects of the educational techniques used are incomplete, and the assessment of labor market outcomes awaits follow-up of program participants, we have learned a great deal about the process of institutional adaptation. The recommendations presented above address policies which could enhance cooperative relationships among governmental agencies and educational institutions and may, as a consequence, increase the efficiency and productivity of employment and training programs as well as accountability of postsecondary institutions.

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